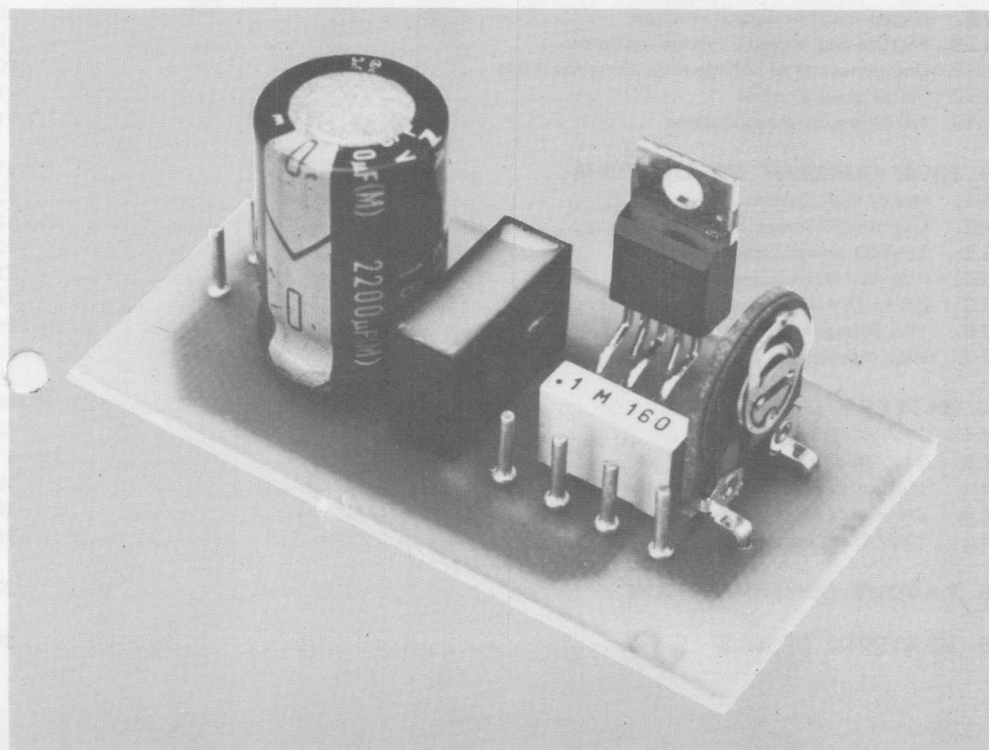




TECHNICAL NOTE 146

USING THE L200 ADJUSTABLE VOLTAGE AND CURRENT REGULATOR

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CONTENTS

	pag.
INTRODUCTION	3
1. DEVICE DESCRIPTION	3
1.1. Package	3
1.2. Electrical circuit	3
1.3. Overload protection	5
1.4. Thermal protection	5
1.5. Current limitation	5
2. TYPICAL APPLICATIONS	5
2.1. Programmable current regulator	5
2.2. Programmable voltage regulator	5
2.3. Programmable current and voltage regulator	6
2.4. Digitally selected voltage regulator with inhibit	6
2.5. Reducing power dissipation with dropping resistor	6
2.6. Softstart	7
2.7. Light controller	7
2.8. Light dimmer for car display	7
2.9. Higher input or output voltages	8
2.10. Positive and negative voltage regulators	9
2.11. Compensation of voltage drop along the wires	10
2.12. Motor speed control	11
2.13. Power amplitude modulator	11
3. HIGH CURRENT REGULATORS	11
3.1. Use of PNP power transistor	12
3.2. Use of NPN power transistor	12
3.3. 12V/4A power supply	12
3.4. 0 to 18V/4.5A power supply	13
3.5. 2.8 to 18V/2.5A power supply	14
3.6. 10A voltage regulator	15
3.7. High efficiency power supply using preregulation	15
4. BATTERY CHARGERS	16
4.1. 12V/2A battery charger	16
4.2. 24V/2A battery charger	17
4.3. Battery charger for 6-8-12V battery	18
4.4. 4A battery charger using two L200s	19
4.5. 12V/70 Ah battery charger	19
5. LAYOUT CONSIDERATION	20
6. HEATSINK DESIGN	20

INTRODUCTION

The introduction of integrated regulator circuits has greatly simplified the work involved in designing supplies. In fact, the regulation and protection circuits required for the supply, previously realized using discrete components, are now integrated in a single chip. This has led to significant cost and space saving as well as increased reliability. Today the designer has a wide range of fixed and adjustable, positive and negative series regulators to choose from as well as an increasing number of switching regulators.

This technical note presents the L200, a voltage regulator with current limitation, together with a series of applications which highlight the versatility of the device and its simplicity of use. The L200 is a positive monolithic regulator with voltage adjustable from 2.85 to 36V and current adjustable up to 2A.

The output voltage is fixed with two resistors only if a continuously variable output voltage is required, with one fixed and one variable resistor. The maximum output current is fixed with a low value resistor. The device has all the characteristics common to normal fixed regulators and these are described in the datasheet. The L200 is particularly

suitable for applications requiring output voltage variation, or when a voltage not provided by the standard regulators is required or when a special limit must be placed on the output current.

1. DEVICE DESCRIPTION

1.1. Package

The device is available in two packages:

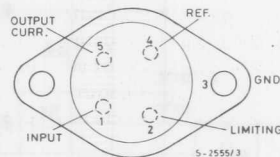
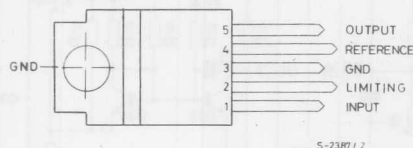
Pentawatt — Offers easy assembly and good reliability. The guaranteed thermal resistance ($R_{th J-case}$) is $3^{\circ}C/W$ (typically $2^{\circ}C/W$) while if the device is used without heatsink we can consider a guaranteed junction-ambient thermal resistance of $50^{\circ}C/W$.

TO 3 — For professional and military use or where good hermeticity is required.

The guaranteed junction-case thermal resistance is $4^{\circ}C/W$, while the junction-ambient thermal resistance is $35^{\circ}C/W$.

The junction-case thermal resistance of this package, which is greater than that of the Pentawatt, is partly compensated by the lower contact resistance with the heatsink, especially when an electrical insulating is used.

Connection diagrams and ordering numbers (top views)



Type	Pentawatt®	TO-3
L 200		L 200 T
L 200 C	L 200 CH L 200 CV	L 200 CT

1.2. Electrical circuit

As can be seen from the block diagram (fig. 1) the voltage regulation loop is almost identical to that of fixed regulators. The only difference is the negative feedback network external, so it can be varied (fig. 3).

The output is linked to the reference by the:

$$V_{out} = V_{ref} \left(1 + \frac{R_2}{R_1} \right) \quad (1)$$

Considering V_{out} as the output of an operational amplifier with gain equal to $G_v = 1 + R_2/R_1$ and input signal equal to V_{ref} , variability of the output voltage can be obtained by varying R_1 or R_2 (or both). It's best to vary R_1 because in this way the current in resistors R_1 and R_2 remains constant (this current is in fact given by V_{ref}/R_1).

(Equation (1) can also be found in another way which is more useful in order to understand the descriptions of the applications discussed.

$$V_{out} = R_1 i_1 + R_2 i_2$$

and since in practice $i_1 \gg i_4$ (i_4 has a typical value of $10 \mu A$) we can say that

$$V_{out} = R_1 i_1 + R_2 i_1 \text{ with } i_1 = \frac{V_{ref}}{R_1}$$

Therefore

$$V_{out} = \frac{R_2}{R_1} V_{ref} + V_{ref} = V_{ref} \left(1 + \frac{R_2}{R_1} \right)$$

In other words R_1 fixes the value of the current circulating in R_2 so R_2 is determined.

Fig. 1 - Block diagram

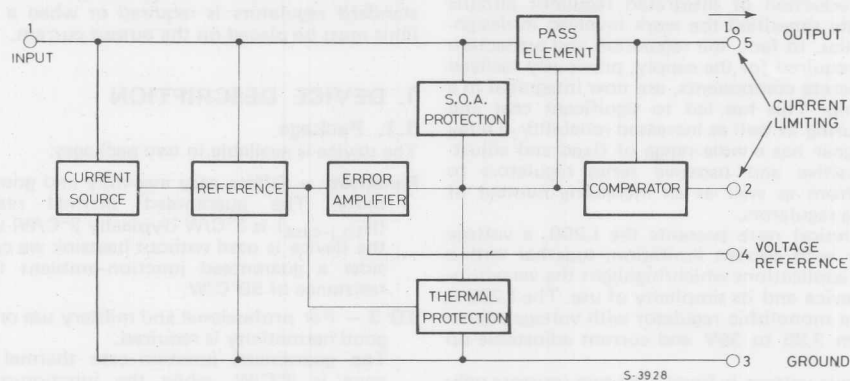


Fig. 2 - Schematic diagram

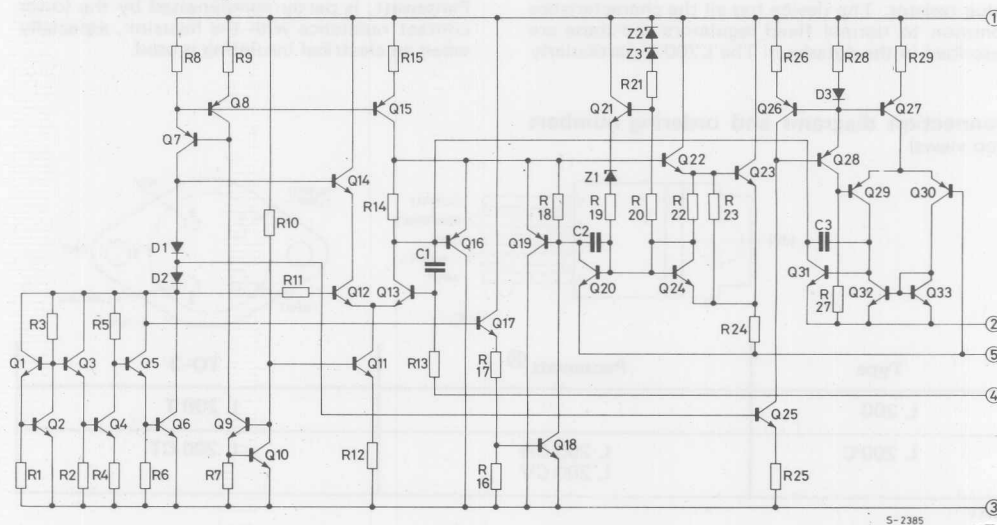
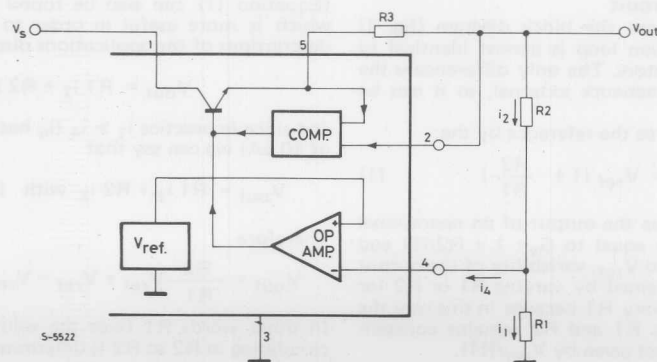
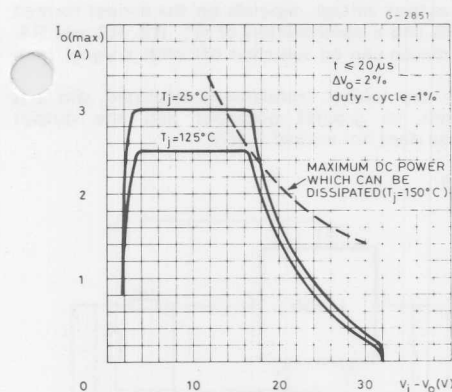


Fig. 3



voltage drop sufficient to make Q20 conductor, Q19 begins to draw current from the base of the power transistor (darlington formed by Q22 and Q23) and the output current is limited. The limit depends on the current which Q21 injects into the base of Q20. This current depends on the drop-out and the temperature which explains the trend of the curves in fig. 4.

Fig. 4



1.4. Thermal protection

The junction temperature of the device may reach destructive levels during a short circuit at the output or due to an abnormal increase in the ambient temperature. To avoid having to use heatsinks which are costly and bulky, a thermal protection circuit has been introduced to limit the output current so that the dissipated power does not bring the junction temperature above the values allowed. The operation of this circuit can be summarized as follows.

In Q17 there is a constant current equal to:

$$\frac{V_{\text{ref}} - V_{\text{BE17}}}{R17 + R16} \quad (V_{\text{ref}} = 2.75 \text{ V typ})$$

The base of Q18 is therefore biased at:

$$V_{\text{BE18}} = \frac{V_{\text{ref}} - V_{\text{BE17}}}{R16 + R17} \cdot R16 \cong 350 \text{ mV}$$

Therefore at $T_J = 25^\circ\text{C}$ Q18 is off (since 600 mV is needed for it to start conducting). Since the V_{BE} of a silicon transistor decreases by about $2 \text{ mV}/^\circ\text{C}$, Q18 starts conducting at the junction temperature:

$$T_J = \frac{600 - 350}{2} + 25 = 150^\circ\text{C}$$

resistor ($R3$ in fig. 4).

Obviously if $R3 = 0$ the maximum output current is also the maximum current that the device can supply because of its internal limitation.

The current loop consists of a comparator circuit with fixed threshold whose value is V_{sc} .

This comparator intervenes when $I_O \cdot R3 = V_{\text{sc}}$,

hence $I_O = \frac{V_{\text{sc}}}{R3}$ (V_{sc} is the voltage between

pins 5 and 2 with typical value of 0.45V).

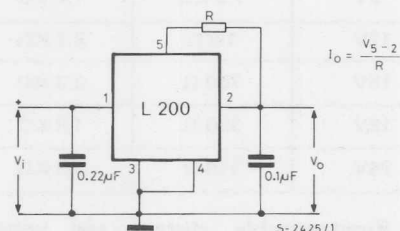
Special attention has been given to the comparator circuit in order to ensure that the device behaves as a current generator with high output impedance.

2. TYPICAL APPLICATIONS

2.1. Programmable current regulator

Fig. 5 shows the device used as current generator. In this case the error amplifier is disabled short-circuiting pin 4 at ground.

Fig. 5



The output current I_O is fixed by means of R :

$$I_O = \frac{V_5 - 2}{R}$$

The output voltage can reach a maximum value $V_i - V_{\text{drop}} \cong V_i - 2 \text{ V}$ (V_{drop} depends on I_O).

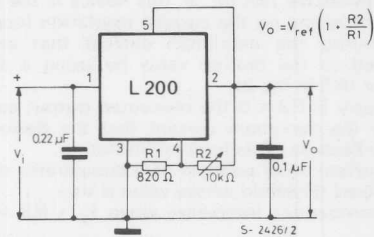
2.2. Programmable voltage regulator

Fig. 6 shows the device connected as a voltage regulator and the maximum output current is the maximum current that the device can supply. The output voltage V_O is fixed using potentiometer $R2$. The equation which gives the output voltage is as follows:

$$V_O = V_{\text{ref}} \left(1 + \frac{R2}{R1} \right)$$

By substituting the potentiometer with a fixed resistor and choosing suitable values for $R1$ and $R2$, it is possible to obtain a wide range of fixed output voltages.

Fig. 6



The following formulas and tables can be used to calculate some of the most common output voltages.

Having fixed a certain V_O , using the previous formula, the maximum value is:

$V_{O \max} = V_{ref \max} \left(1 + \frac{R2_{\max}}{R1_{\min}} \right)$ and the minimum value is:

$$V_{O \min} = V_{ref \min} \left(1 + \frac{R2_{\min}}{R1_{\max}} \right)$$

The table below can be used to calculate some V_O :

$V_O \pm 4\%$	$R1 \pm 1\%$	$R2 \pm 1\%$
5V	1.5 K Ω	1.2 K Ω
12V	1 K Ω	3.3 K Ω
15V	750 Ω	3.3 K Ω
18V	330 Ω	1.8 K Ω
24V	510 Ω	3.9 K Ω

2.3. Programmable current and voltage regulator

The typical configuration used by the device as a voltage regulator with external current limitation is shown in fig. 7.

The fixed voltage of 2.77V at the terminals of R1 makes it possible to force a constant current across variable resistor R2. If R2 is varied, the voltage at pin 2 is varied and so is the output voltage.

The output voltage is given by:

$$V_O = V_{ref} \cdot \left(1 + \frac{R2}{R1} \right), \text{ with } V_{ref} = 2.77V \text{ typ}$$

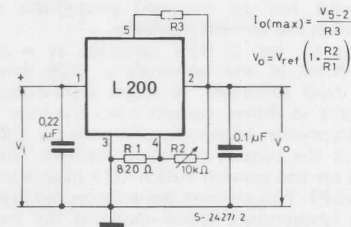
and the maximum output current is given by:

$$I_{O \max} = \frac{V_{5-2}}{R3} \text{ with } V_{5-2} = 0.45V \text{ typ.}$$

To maintain a sufficient current for good regulation the value of R1 should be kept low. In fact, when there is no load, the output current is $V_{ref}/R1$. Suitable values of R1 are between 500 Ω and 1.5 K Ω .

If the load is always present the maximum value for R1 is limited by the current value (10 μ A) at the input of the error amplifier (pin 4).

Fig. 7



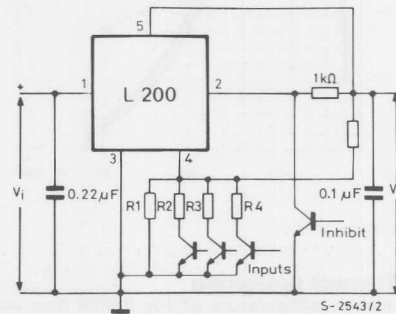
2.4. Digitally selected regulator with inhibit

The output voltage of the device can be regulated digitally as shown in fig. 8.

The output voltage depends on the divider formed by R5 and a combination of R1, R2, R3 and R4. The device can be switched off with a signal transistor.

When the inhibit transistor is saturated, pin 2 is brought to ground potential and the output voltage does not exceed 0.45V.

Fig. 8

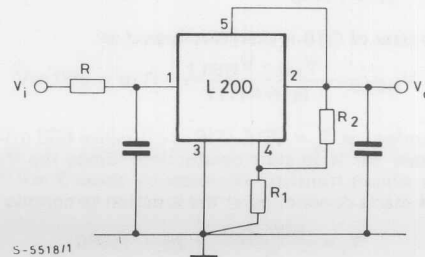


2.5. Reducing power dissipation with dropping resistor

It may sometimes be advisable to reduce the power dissipated by the device.

A simple and economic method of doing this is to use a resistor connected in series to the input as shown in fig. 9. The input-output differential voltage on the device is thus reduced.

Fig. 9



The formula for calculating R is as follows:

$$R = \frac{V_{i \min} - (V_o + V_{\text{drop}})}{I_o}$$

where V_{drop} is the minimum differential voltage between the input and the output of the device at current I_o .

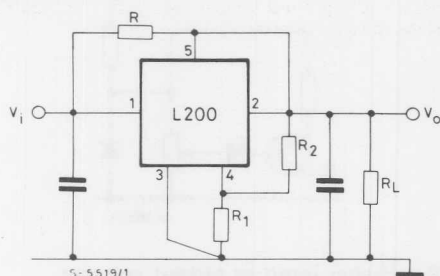
$V_{i \min}$ is the minimum input voltage.

V_o is the output voltage and I_o the output current. With constant load, resistor R can be connected between pins 1 and 2 of the IC instead of in series with the input (fig. 10). In this way, part of the load current flows through the device and part through the resistor.

This configuration can be used when the minimum current by the load is:

$$I_{o \min} = \frac{V_{\text{drop}}}{R} \quad (\text{instant by instant})$$

Fig. 10



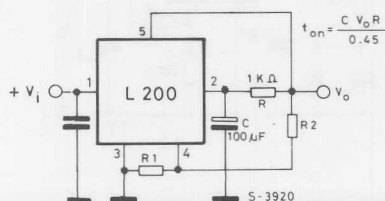
2.6. Soft start

When a slow rise time of the output voltage is required, the configuration in fig. 11 can be used. The rise time can be found using the following formula:

$$t_{on} = \frac{CV_o R}{0.45}$$

In fact, at switch-on capacitor C is discharged and it keeps the voltage at pin 2 low; or rather, since a voltage of more than 0.45V cannot be generated between pins 5 and 2, the V_o follows the voltage in 2 at less than 0.45V.

Fig. 11



Capacitor C is charged by the constant current i_c .

$$i_c = \frac{V_{sc}}{R}$$

Therefore the output reaches its nominal value after the time t_{on} :

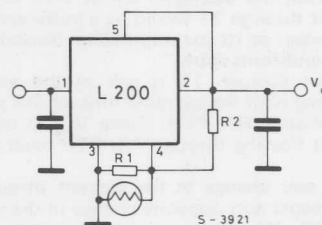
$$V_o - V_{sc} = \frac{i_c \cdot t_{on}}{C}$$

$$t_{on} = C \cdot \frac{(V_o - 0.45)}{0.45} \cdot R \approx \frac{CV_o R}{0.45}$$

2.7. Light controller

Fig. 12 shows a circuit in which the output voltage is controlled by the brightness of the surrounding environment. Regulation is by means of a photoresistor in parallel with R1. In this case, the output voltage increases as the brightness increases. The opposite effect, i.e. dimming the light as the ambient light increases, can be obtained by connecting the photoresistor in parallel with R2.

Fig. 12



2.8. Light dimmer for car display

Although digital displays in cars are often more aesthetically pleasing and frequently more easily read they do have a problem associated with them. That is, under varying ambient light conditions they are either lost in the back-ground or alternatively appear so bright as to distract the driver. With the system proposed here, this problem is overcome by automatically adjusting the display brightness during day light conditions and by giving the driver control over the brightness during dusk and darkness conditions.

The circuit is shown in fig. 13. The primary supply is shown taken straight from the car battery however it is worth noting that in a car there is always the risk of dump voltages up to 120V and it is recommended that some form of protection is included against this.

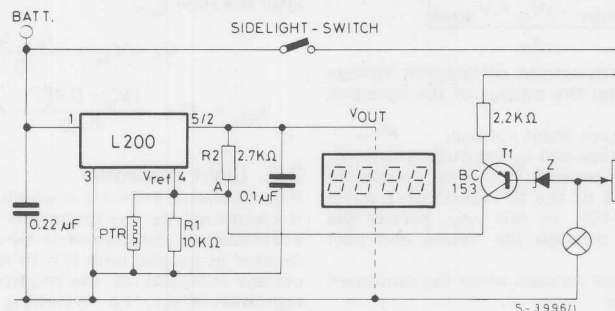
Daylight conditions

Under daylight conditions i.e. with sidelights off and T1 not conducting the output of the device is determined by the values of R1, R2 and the photoresistor (PTR). The output voltage is given by

$$V_{out} = V_{ref} \left(1 + \frac{R2}{PTR/R1} \right)$$

If the ambient light intensity is high, the resistance of the photoresistor will be low and therefore V_{out} will be high. As the light decreases, so V_{out} decreases dimming the display to a suitable level.

Fig. 13



Dusk conditions

When the sidelights are switched on, T1 starts to conduct with its conduction set by the potentiometer. With the potentiometer wiper at its uppermost position the sidelights are at their brightest and current through T1 would be a minimum.

With the wiper at its lowest position obviously the opposite conditions apply.

The current through T1 is felt at the summing node A along with the currents through R2 and the parallel network R1, PTR. Since V_{ref} is constant the current flowing through R1, PTR must also be constant.

Therefore any change in the current through T1 causes an equal and opposite change in the current through R2. Therefore as I_{T1} increases, V_{out} decreases i.e. as the brightness of the sidelights is increased or decreased so is the brightness of the display.

The values of R2 and PTR should be selected to give the desired minimum and maximum brightness levels desired under both automatic and manual conditions although the minimum brightness under manual conditions can also be set by the maximum current flowing through T1 and, in any case, this should not exceed the maximum current through R2 under automatic operation.

The circuit shown with a small modification can also be used for dimmers other than in a car. Fig. 15 shows the modification needed. The zener diode should have a $V_F \geq 2.5V$ at $I = 10 \mu A$.

Fig. 14

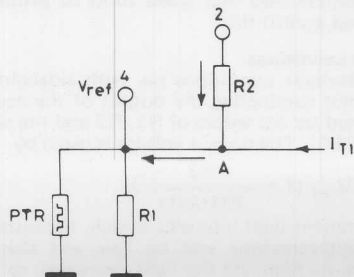
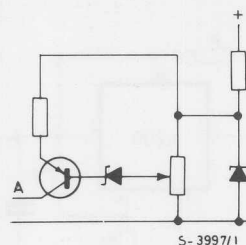


Fig. 15



2.9. Higher input or output voltages

Certain applications may require higher input or output voltages than the device can produce. The problem can be solved by bringing the regulator back into the normal operating units with the help of external components.

When there are high input voltages, the excess voltage must be absorbed with a transistor. Figs. 16 and 17 show the two circuits:

Fig. 16

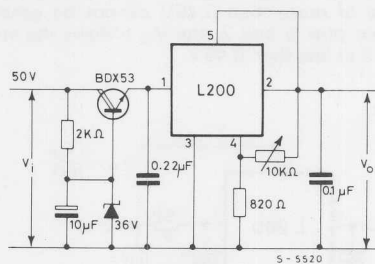
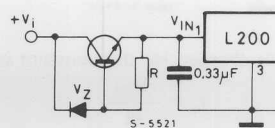


Fig. 17



conditions we have 20V of V_{CE} on the transistor and with a load current of 2A the operation point remains inside the SOA. The preregulation used in fig. 16 reduces the ripple at the input of the device, making it possible to obtain an output voltage with negligible ripple.

If high output voltages are also required, a second zener, V_Z , is used to refer the ground pin of an IC

Fig. 18

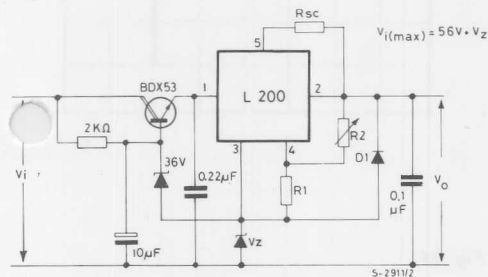


Fig. 19

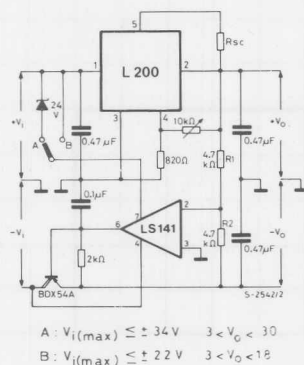
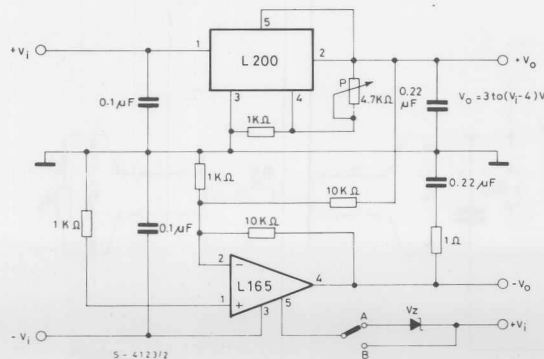


Fig. 20



A: for $\pm 18V \leq V_i \leq 32V$

Note: V_Z must be chosen in order to verify $2V_i - V_Z = 36V$

B: for $V_i \leq \pm 18V$

2.10. Positive and negative voltage regulators
 The circuit in fig. 19 provides positive and negative balanced, stabilized voltages simultaneously.

The L200 regulator supplies the positive voltage while the negative is obtained using an operational amplifier connected as follower with output current booster.

Tracking of the positive voltage is achieved by putting the non-inverting input to ground and using the inverting input to measure the feedback voltage coming from divider R1-R2.

The system is balanced when the inputs of the operational amplifier are at the same voltage, or, since one input is at fixed ground potential, when the voltage of the intermediate point of the divider goes to 0 Volts. This is only possible if the negative voltage, on command of the op-amp, goes to a value which will make a current equal to that in R1 flows in R2. The ratio which expresses the negative output voltage is:

$$V^- = V^+ \cdot \frac{R2}{R1} \quad (\text{If } R2 = R1, \text{ we'll get } V^- = V^+)$$

Since the maximum supply voltage of the op amp used is $\pm 22V$, when pin 7 is connected to point B output voltages up to about 18V can be obtained. If on the other hand pin 7 is connected to point A, much higher output voltages, up to about 30V, be obtained since in this case the input voltage can rise to 34V.

Fig. 20 shows a diagram in which the L165 power op amp is used to produce the negative voltage. In this case (as in fig. 19) the output voltage is limited by the absolute maximum rating of the supply voltage of the L165 which is $\pm 18V$. Therefore to get a higher V_{out} we must use a zener to keep the device supply within the safety limits.

If we have a transformer with two separate secondaries, the diagram of fig. 21 can be used to obtain independent positive and negative voltages. The two output diodes, D1 and D2, protect the devices from shortcircuits between the positive and negative outputs.

Fig. 21

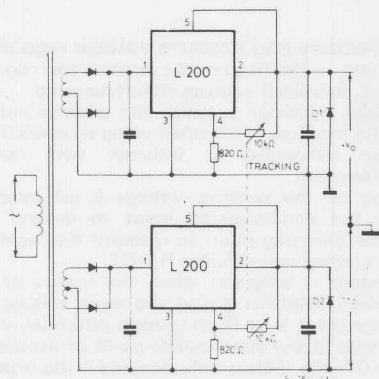
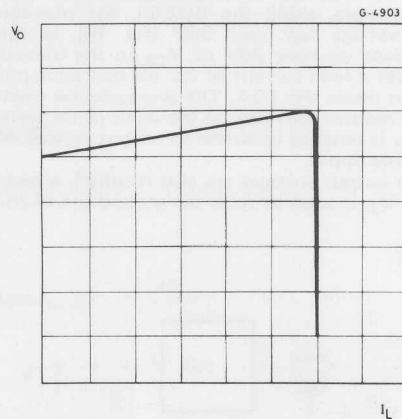


Fig. 23



2.11. Compensation of voltage drop along the wires

The diagram in fig. 22 is particularly suitable when a load situated far from the output of the regulator has to be supplied and when we want to avoid the use of the two sensing wires. In fact, it is possible to compensate the voltage drop on the line caused by the load current (see the two curves in fig. 23 and 24). R_K transforms the load current I_L into a proportional voltage in series to the reference of the L200. $R_K I_L$ is then amplified by the factor

$$\frac{R_2 + R_1}{R_1}$$

With the values of R_Z , R_2 and R_1 known, we get:

$$R_K = R_Z \frac{R_1}{R_1 + R_2}$$

R_Z , R_1 and R_2 are assumed to be constant.

If R_K is higher than 10Ω , the output voltage should be calculated as follows:

$$V_O = I_d R_K + V_{ref} \frac{R_2 + R_1}{R_1}$$

Fig. 24

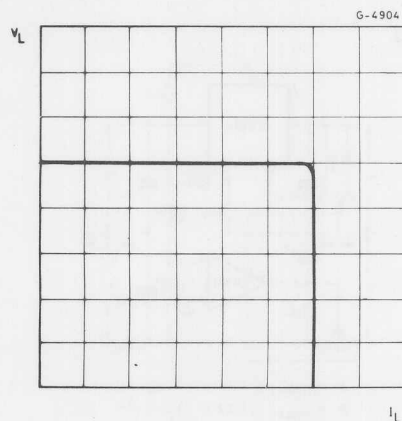
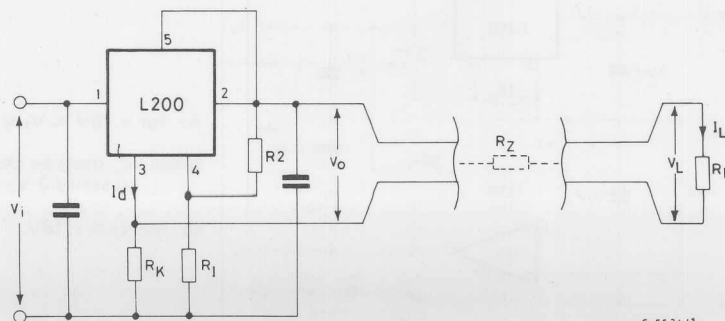


Fig. 22



S-5524/11

2.12. Motor speed control

Fig. 25 shows how to use the device for the speed control of permanent magnet motors. The desired speed, proportional to the voltage at the terminal of the motor, is obtained by means of R_1 and R_2 .

$$V_M = V_{ref} \left(1 + \frac{R_2}{R_1}\right)$$

To obtain better compensation of the internal motor resistance, which is essential for good regulation, the following equation is used:

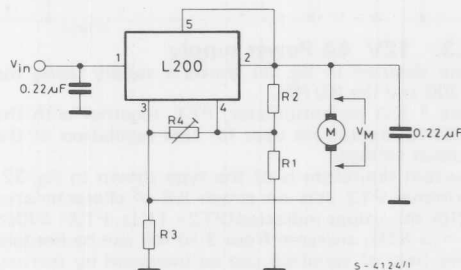
$$R_3 \leq \frac{R_1}{R_2} \cdot R_M$$

This equation works with R_4 infinite. If R_4 is finite, the motor speed can be increased without altering the ratio R_2/R_1 and R_3 . Since R_4 has a constant voltage (V_{ref}) at its terminals, which does not vary as R_4 varies, this voltage acts on R_2 as a constant current source variable with R_4 . The voltage drop on R_2 thus increases, and the increase is felt by the voltage at the terminals of the motor. The voltage increase at the motor terminals is:

$$V_M = \frac{V_{ref}}{R_4 + R_3} \cdot R_2.$$

A circuit for a 30W motor with $R_M = 4\Omega$, $R_1 = 1\text{ K}\Omega$, $R_2 = 4.3\text{ K}\Omega$, $R_4 = 22\text{ K}\Omega$ and $R_3 = 0.82\Omega$ has been realized.

Fig. 25



2.13. Power amplitude modulator

In the configuration of fig. 26 the L200 is used to send a signal onto a supply line. Since the input signal V_i is DC decoupled, the V_o is defined by:

$$V_o = V_{ref} \left(1 + \frac{R_2}{R_1}\right)$$

The amplified signal V_i whose value is:

$$G_v = - \frac{R_2}{R_3}$$

is added to this component. By ignoring the current entering pin 4, we must impose $i_1 = i_2 + i_3$ (1) and since the voltage between pin 4 and ground remains fixed (V_{ref}) as long as the device is not in saturation, $i_1 = 0$ and equation (1) becomes:

$$i_2 = -i_3 \text{ with } i_3 = \frac{V_i}{R_3} \text{ (for } X_c \ll R_3 \text{) - Therefore:}$$

$$v_o = R_2 i_2 = - \frac{V_i}{R_3} \cdot R_2.$$

An application is shown in fig. 27. If the DC level is to be varied but not the AC gain, R_1 should be replaced by a potentiometer.

Fig. 26

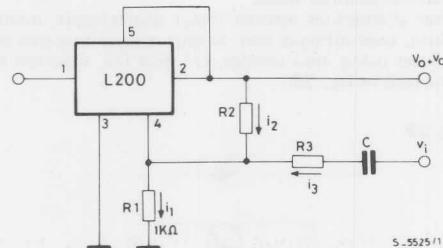
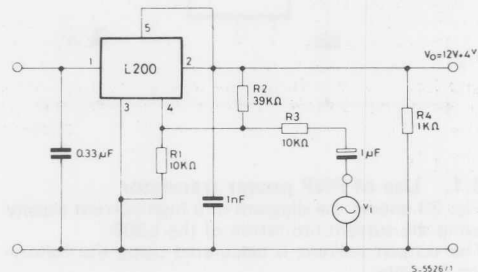


Fig. 27



3. HIGH CURRENT REGULATORS

To get a higher current than can be supplied by a single device one or more external power transistors must be introduced.

The problem is then to extend all the device's protection circuits (shortcircuit protection, limitation of T_j of external power devices and overload protection) to the external transistors.

Constant current or foldback current limitation therefore becomes necessary.

When the regulator is expected to withstand a permanent shortcircuit, constant current limitation becomes more and more difficult to guarantee as the nominal V_o increases. This is because of the increase in V_{CE} at the terminals of the transistor, which leads to an increase in the dissipated power. Heatsink has to be calculated in the heaviest working conditions, and therefore in shortcircuit. This increases weight, volume and cost of the heatsink and increase of the ambient temperature (because of high power dissipation). Besides heatsink, power transistors must be dimensioned for the short-circuit.

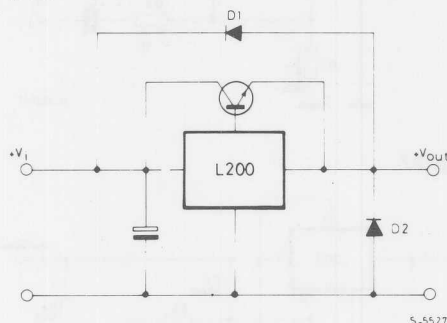
This type, of limitation is suited, for example, with highly capacitive loads.

Efficiency is increased if preregulation is used on the input voltage to maintain a constant drop-out on the power element for all V_{out} , even in short-circuit.

Foldback limitation, on the other hand, allows lighter shortcircuit operating conditions than the previous case. The type of load is important. If the load is highly capacitive, it is not possible to have a high ratio between I_{max} and I_{sc} because at switch-on, with load inserted, the output may not reach its nominal value.

Other protection against input shortcircuit, mains failure, overvoltages and output reverse bias can be realized using two diodes, D1 and D2, inserted as indicated in fig. 28.

Fig. 28



3.1. Use of PNP power transistor

Fig. 29 shows the diagram of a high current supply using the current limitation of the L200.

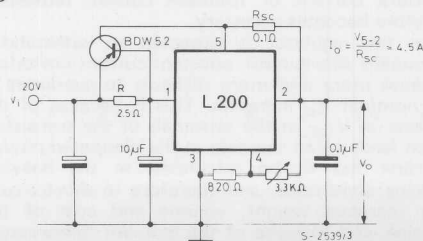
The output current is calculated using the following formula:

$$I_o = \frac{V_{sc}}{R_{sc}} \approx \frac{0.45V}{0.1\Omega} = 4.5A$$

Constant current limitation is used; so, in output shortcircuit conditions, the transistor dissipates a power equal to:

$$PD = V_i \cdot I_o = V_i \cdot \frac{V_{sc}}{R_{sc}}$$

Fig. 29



The operating point of the transistor should be kept well within the SOA; with $R_{sc} = 0.1\Omega$, V_i

must not exceed 20V. Part of the I_o crosses the transistor and part crosses the regulator.

The latter is given by: $I_{REG} = I_B + \frac{V_{BE}}{R}$.

where I_B is the base current of the transistor (~ 100 mA at $I_C = 4A$) and V_{BE} is the base-emitter voltage ($\sim 1V$ at $I_C = 4A$); with $R = 2.5\Omega$, $I_{REG} \approx 500$ mA.

3.2. Use of NPN power transistor

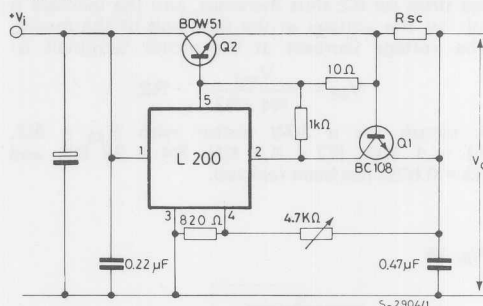
Fig. 30 shows the same application as described in point 3.1, using an NPN power transistor instead of a PNP. In this case an external signal transistor must be used to limit the current.

Therefore:

$$I_o = \frac{V_{BE Q1}}{R_{sc}}$$

As regards the output shortcircuit, see par. 1.5.

Fig. 30



3.3. 12V 4A Power supply

The diagram in fig. 31 shows a supply using the L200 and the BD705.

The $1K\Omega$ potentiometer, PT1, together with the $3.3K\Omega$ resistor are used for fine regulation of the output voltage.

Current limitation is of the type shown in fig. 32. Trimmer PT2 acts on stretch AB of characteristic.

With the values indicated (PT2 = $1K\Omega$, PT3 = 470Ω , $R = 3K\Omega$), currents from 3 to 4A can be limited.

The field of variation can be increased by increasing the value of R_{sc} or by connecting one terminal of PT3 to the base of the power transistor, which, however, provides less stable limitation.

If stretch AB is moved, stretch BC will also be moved.

The slope of BC can be varied using PT3. The voltage level at point B is fixed by the voltage of the zener diode. The capacitor in parallel to the zener ensures correct switch-on with full load. The BD705 should always be used well within its safe operating area. If this is not possible two or more BD705s should be used, connected in parallel (fig. 33).

Further protection for the external power transistor can be provided as shown in fig. 34. The PTC resistor, whose temperature intervention point must prevent the T_j of the power transistor from reaching its maximum value, should be fixed to the dissipator near the power transistor. Dimensioning of R_A and R_B depends on the PTC used.

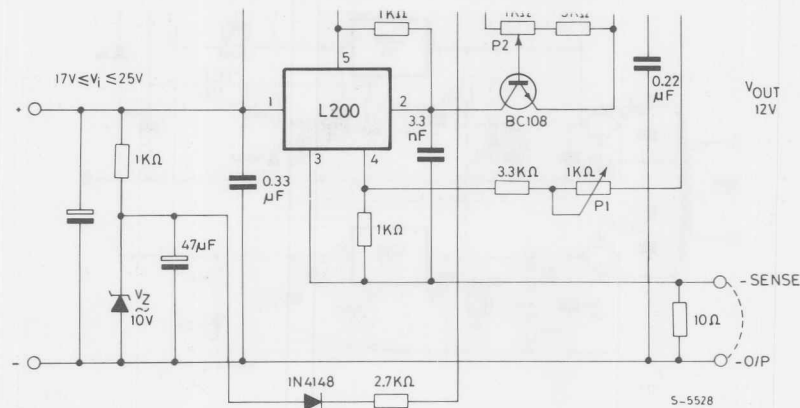


Fig. 32

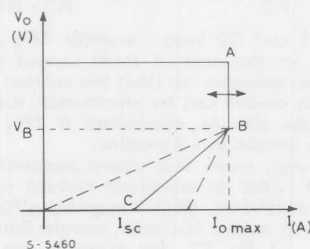


Fig. 33

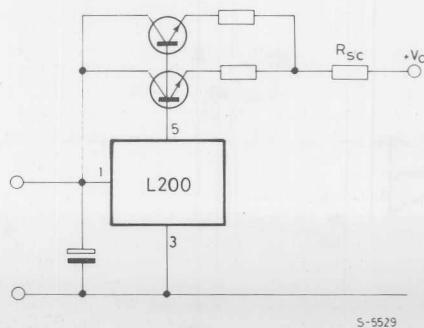
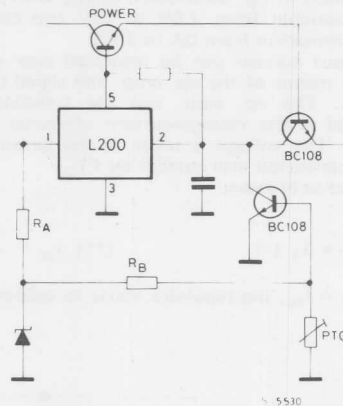


Fig. 34



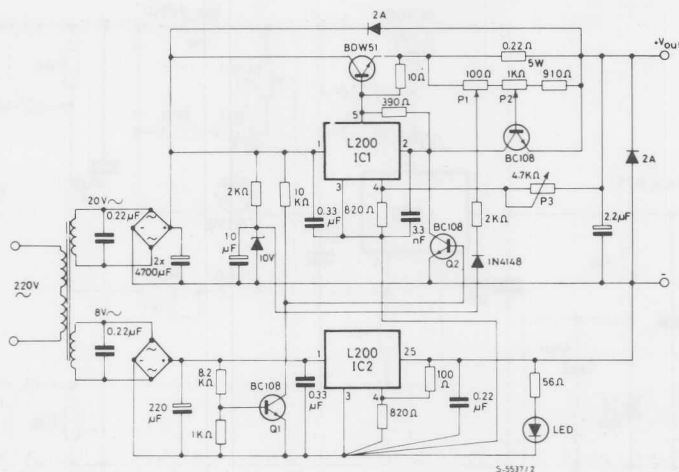
3.4. Voltage regulator from 0V to 16V - 4.5A

Fig. 35 shows an application for a high current supply with output voltage adjustable from 0V to 16V, realized with two L200 regulators and an external power transistor. With the values indicated, the current can be regulated from 2A to 4.5A by potentiometer PT2. PT1, on the other hand, is used for constant current or foldback current limitation. The integrated circuit IC2, which does not require a heatsink and has excellent temperature stability, is used to obtain the 0V output.

In fact, it is connected so as to lower pin 3 of IC1 until pin 4 reaches 0V.

Q1 and Q2 ensure correct operation of the supply at switch-on and switch-off.

Fig. 35



3.5. Power supply with $V_o = 2.8$ to 18V, $I_o = 0$ to 2.5A

The diagram in fig. 36 shows a supply with output voltage variable from 2.8V to 18V and constant current limitation from 0A to 2.5A.

The output current can be regulated over a wide range by means of the op. amp. and signal transistor TR₂. The op. amp. and the transistor are connected in the voltage-current converter configuration. The voltage is taken at the terminals of R₃ and converted into current by PT₂.

$$\frac{R_4 I_0}{PT_2} = I_1 (*) \quad (**) \quad I_{sc} = \frac{V_{sc}}{R_2}$$

When $I_1 = I_{sc}$, the regulator starts to operate as a

current generator. By making (*) equal to (**) we get:

$$\frac{R_4 I_o}{P T_2} = \frac{V_{SC}}{R_2} ; \text{ therefore } I_o = \frac{V_{SC}}{R_2 \cdot R_4} \cdot P T_2.$$

Diodes D1 and D2 keep transistor TR₂ in linear condition in the case of small output currents. If it is not necessary to limit the current to zero, one of the diodes can be eliminated; the second diode could also be eliminated if TR₁ were a darlington instead of a transistor.

The op. amp. must have inputs compatible with ground in order to guarantee current limitation even in shortcircuit. With a negative voltage available, even of only a few volts, current limitation is simplified. In fig. 37, for example, the current limiting circuit becomes:

Fig. 36

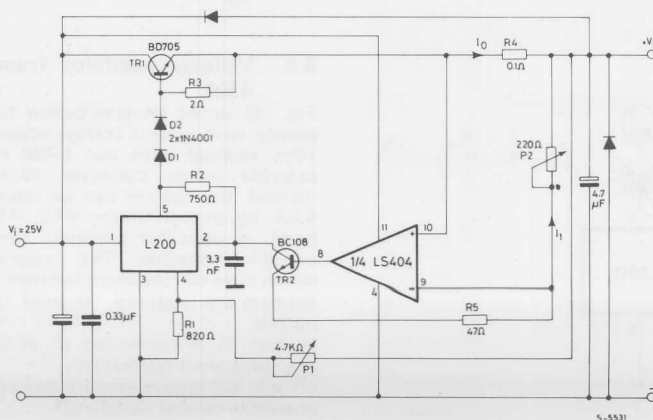
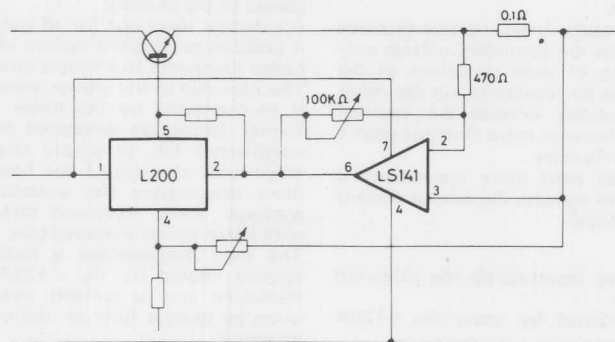


Fig. 37



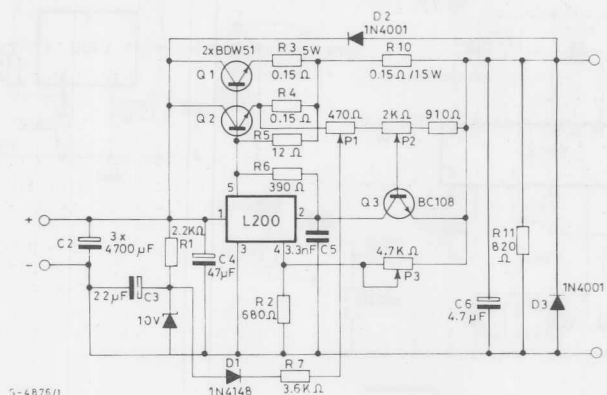
S-5532

3.6. 10A voltage regulator

The diagram in fig. 38 shows a supply with output voltage between 2.8V and 15V and output current adjustable from 2 to 10A. Current limitation is of the type dealt with previously. Resistors R3 and R4 balance the currents in the two power transistors.

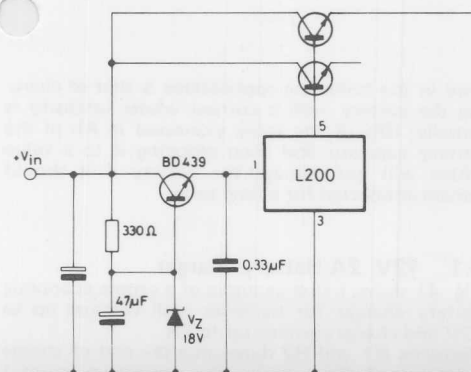
The output current can be increased by increasing the number of power transistors inserted. If the power devices operate at the lowest possible T_j , the reliability of the supply increases. Since the BDW51 has a gain of 40 at $I_c = 5A$

Fig. 38



S-4876/1

Fig. 39



S-5533

(hence $I_b = 125 \text{ mA}$) in the L200 flows a current of around 300 mA.

Leaving the output voltage excursion on the actual values, the number of transistors operating at 5A can be increased to 12 ($I_{REG} \approx 1.5A$).

This number can be further increased by making the transistors work at $I_c = 3A$ ($h_{FE} = 60$) or by using darlington. This type of preregulation is suggested for an output ripple of 1 mV at $I_o = 8A$ (fig. 39).

3.7. High efficiency, power supply using preregulation

The present application refers to a supply having an output voltage adjustable from 3 to 30V and an output current of 2A for any output voltage (fig. 40).

Fixing the drop out of about 5V (by means of a 100Ω potentiometer) the efficiency of the series regulator at $V_o = 3V$ and $I_o = 2A$ is about 37%

compared to an efficiency of about 8% if the pre-regulator is eliminated.

A further advantage results from the fact that this preregulation maintains the secondary voltage very stable in the presence of wide variations of the mains supply. With series regulators, on the other hand, as mains variations increase the nominal operating conditions become more onerous with a further reduction of efficiency.

Preregulation becomes even more convenient if transistors are added to increase the output current (see previous applications).

Circuit Description

This supply works by maintaining the drop-out on the L200 constant.

This function is obtained by using the L120A phase control chip.

As a feedback element an opto-coupler is used because it is necessary to decouple the feedback

signal which is taken from the secondary and passed to the primary.

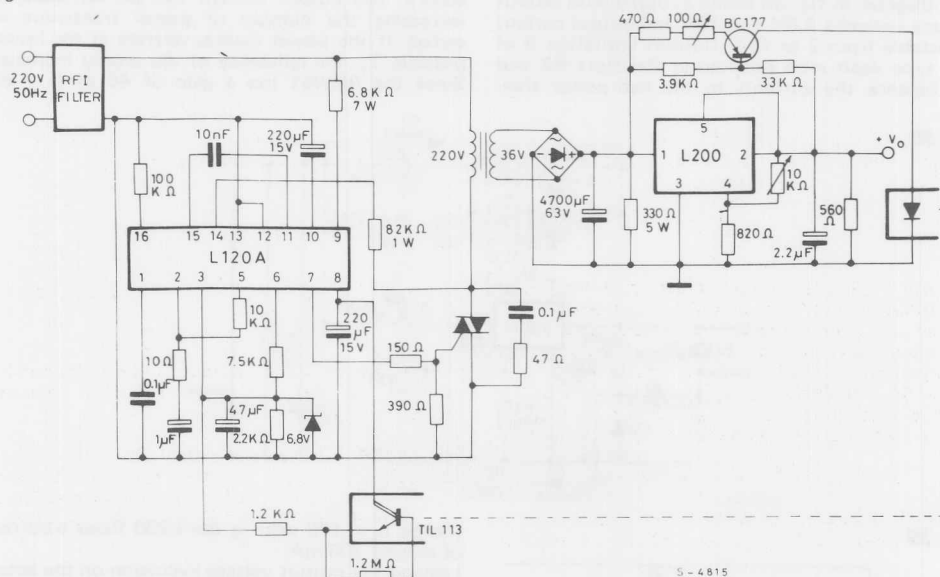
A constant drop-out for all output voltages makes it possible to obtain a system efficiency decidedly higher compared to a simple series regulator.

The cost due to the greater number of components is compensated by the lower cost of the transformer (since the dissipated power is lower the transformer has to supply less power) with the lower cost and size of the heatsink, a lower ambient temperature (for example if the supply is enclosed, lower dissipated power, less heat) and with lower power consumption.

The only disadvantage is radio frequency interference caused by the L120A phase controller. Radiation can be suitably reduced to permitted levels by using a filter on the mains supply and by screening.

A transformer with a lower dispersed flux will reduce interference.

Fig. 40



4. BATTERY CHARGERS

The increased use of rechargeable cells and accumulators in general and their forecast future development in traction, backup, portable tools, toys etc. has made it more and more necessary to produce reliable low-cost battery charges.

The L200 has proved to be extremely versatile and suitable for this type of application too. One or more external transistors are used to recharge batteries with capacity greater than 15 to 18Ah, up to 200 Ah and more. It is particularly suitable for cells whose voltage depends on the cell charge state. Several charging methods are commonly used: constant voltage charging, constant current charging and fast charging. The method

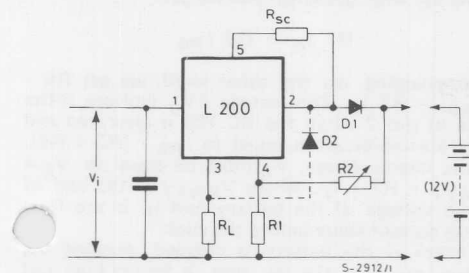
used in the following applications is that of charging the battery with a current whose intensity is initially 10% of the value expressed in Ah of the battery capacity and then reducing it to a value which will not damage the battery if it should remain connected for a long time.

4.1. 12V 2A Battery charger

Fig. 41 shows a first example of a simple economic battery charger for batteries with voltages up to 12V and charge currents up to 2A.

Resistors R1 and R2 determine the end of charge voltage and R_{SC} limits the maximum current charge to the desired value. If two multi-position

Fig. 41



Diode D1 (which is crossed by the charge current) prevents the battery from discharging across the regulator when the device is no longer supplied. The discharge current is therefore:

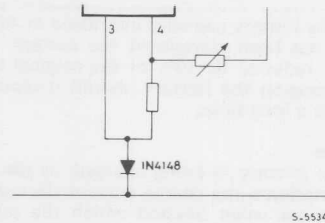
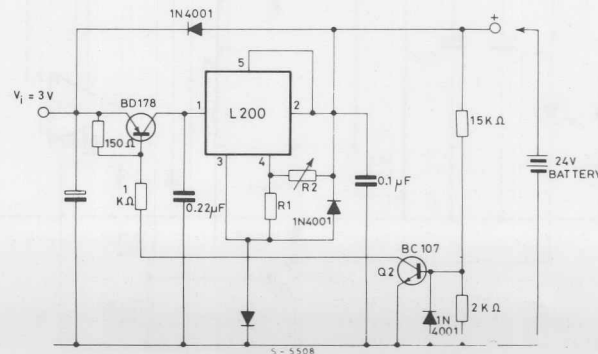
$$\frac{V_{BATT}}{R1 + R2}$$

Resistor R1 limits the reverse current in the device (to about 150 mA) if should the battery be connected the wrong way round. A 12V bulb, which will come on only if the battery is connected wrongly, can be put in series or replace R_L . Since R_L also increases V_{ref} , lower values of R_L can be used introducing a protection diode, D2. The reverse current delivered by the battery is:

$$I_{REV} = \frac{V_{BATT} - V_{D1} - V_{D2}}{R_L}$$

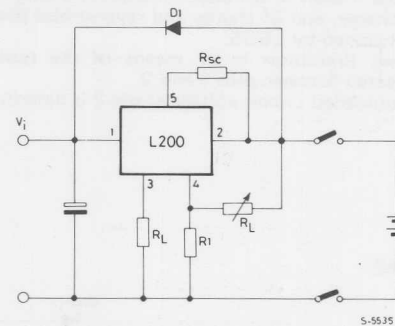
Since it is not essential that the end of charge voltage remain stable, R_L and D2 can be replaced

Fig. 44



Since the drop-out between V_i and V_o has to be reduced, diode D1 can be connected as follows:

Fig. 43



In this case, if there is a mains failure, the current delivered by the battery should be a few mA higher than the previous case.

4.2. 24V - 2A Battery charger

For 24V batteries, a different type of protection must be introduced in case of wrong connection of the battery (see previous point). The circuit proposed is shown in fig. 44.

4.3. Battery charger for 6/8/12V batteries

The diagram in fig. 45 shows a battery charger for 6, 8, 12V batteries, and charge currents of 50-100-150 mA.

The method used here is that of charging the battery initially with a current whose intensity is 10% of the battery capacity expressed in Ah. When charging has been completed the current is automatically reduced to 10% of the original value to avoid damaging the battery should it remain connected for a long time.

Operation

When the battery is being charged, as the battery voltage increases the charge current decreases to a minimum set value beyond which the output of the op. amp. switch low and the supply voltage decreases to a certain value ΔV .

This voltage is fixed at about the same value as at end of battery charging so that a small current continues to flow into the battery which will not damage it even if left under charge for a long time. The charge, end of charge and reverse bias phases, are indicated by LEDS.

Current limitation is by means of the resistors connected between pins 5 and 2.

The unloaded circuit voltage at pin 2 is determined

by the following formula:

$$V_2 = V_{REF} \left(1 + \frac{R_3 + R_6}{R_2} \right)$$

(R_6 is usually negligible with regard to R_3).

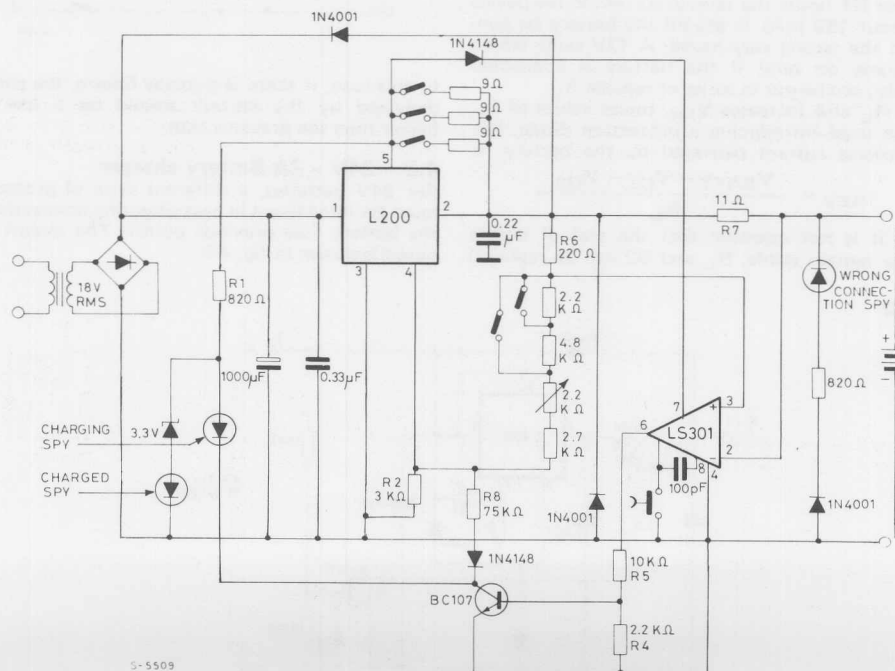
This is also the voltage value of pin 2 when the battery charge current decreases beyond the set limit. When a run-down battery is connected, a current higher than this limits begins to flow; pin 6 of the op. amp. goes high and we get:

$$R_7 I_o > R_6 I_{R6}$$

After charging, on the other hand, we get $R_6 \cdot I_{R6} > R_7 I_o$. The voltage ΔV_o (voltage difference at pin 2 when the BC 108 is saturated and therefore inhibited) is equal to $I_{R8} \cdot (R_3 + R_6)$. In the charge phase, V_2 must be equal to $V_2 = V_{BATT} + R_7 \cdot I_F$, where V_{BATT} is the end of charge voltage of the battery and I_F is the final charge current value before the click.

To check if the battery is charged, pushing the button, pin 6 of the op. amp. is forced high and the BC 108 saturates (the LED which indicates the charge phase also comes on). If the battery is charged, the circuit returns to the end of charge condition in a short time (a few minutes).

Fig. 45



4.4. Battery charger using two L200s

The diagram in fig. 46 shows a very simple battery charger using two L200s in parallel. If the two R_{SC} resistors are shortcircuited, the current available at the output becomes 4A, suitable for recharging batteries up to about 40 Ah.

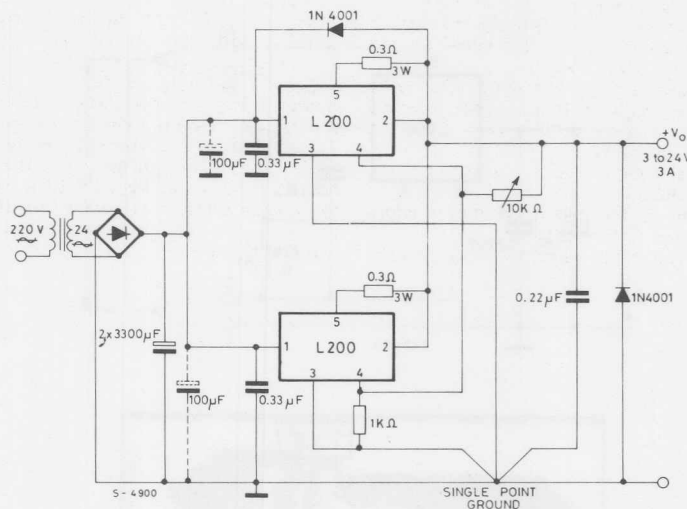
The advantages of having two identical devices are:

- ease of mounting on a single heatsink with no isolation problems;
- internal shortcircuit protection;
- thermal protection.

The charging method used is the same as described in 4.1. and the two devices operate at the same current level only in the case of max. output current.

In all other cases the current in the two devices is unbalanced because of the difference between the two references. When one of the two devices stops conducting the output voltage increases by a quantity (a few hundred mV) proportional to the unbalancing of the two references; this however does not prejudice its use as a battery charger.

Fig. 46



4.5. 12V 70 Ah Battery charger

Fig. 47 shows a circuit suitable for charging 12V batteries with capacity of 70 Ah and more.

The circuit is protected against reverse bias by R3

and C_{R8} which must be suitably dimensioned for the dissipated power if the reverse bias is not removed quickly. An alternative protection circuit is shown in fig. 48.

Fig. 47

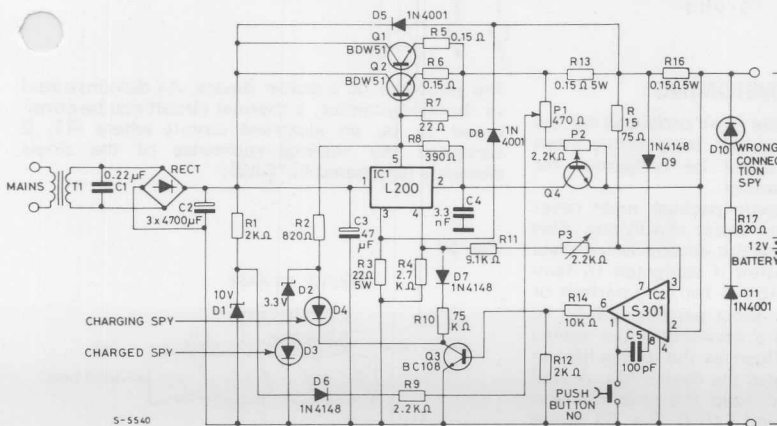
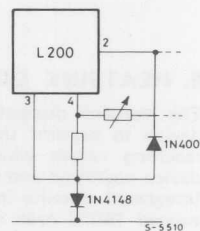


Fig. 48



5. LAYOUT CONSIDERATIONS

The performance of a regulator depends to a great extent on the case with which the printed circuit is produced. There must be no impulsive currents (like the one in the electrolytic filter capacitor at the input of the regulator) between the ground pin of the device (pin 3) and the negative output terminal because these would increase the output ripple. Care must also be taken when inserting the resistor connected between pin 4 and pin 3 of the device.

The stretch of track connecting pin 3 to a terminal of this resistor should be very short and must not

be crossed by the load current (which, since it is generally variable, would give rise to a voltage drop on this stretch of track, altering the value of V_{ref} and therefore of V_o).

When the load is not in the immediate proximity of the regulator output "+ sense" and "- sense" terminals should be used (see fig. 49).

By connecting the "+ sense" and "- sense" terminals directly at the charge terminals the voltage drop on the connection cable between supply and load are compensated. Fig. 49 shows how to connect supply and load using the sensing clamps terminals.

Fig. 49

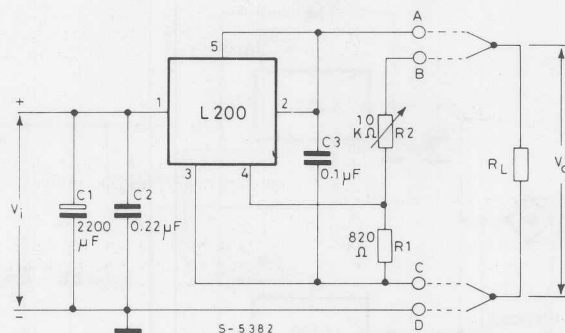
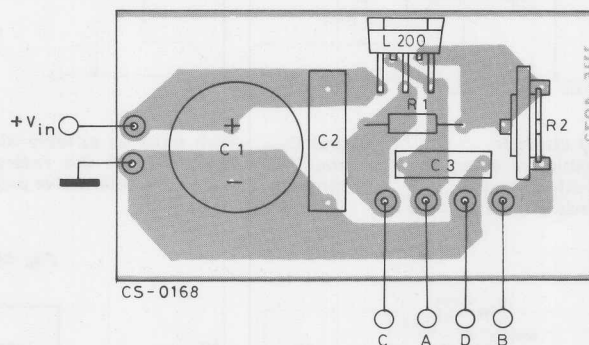


Fig. 50



6. HEATSINK DIMENSIONING

The heatsink dissipates the heat produced by the device to prevent the internal temperature from reaching values which could be dangerous for device operation and reliability.

Integrated circuits in plastic package must never exceed 150°C even in the worst conditions. This limit has been set because the encapsulating resin has problems of vitrification if subjected to temperatures of more than 150°C for long periods or of more than 170°C for short periods (24 h). In any case the temperature accelerates the ageing process and therefore influences the device life; an increase of 10°C can halve the device life. A well designed heatsink should keep the junction temperature between 90°C and 110°C. Fig. 51 shows

the structure of a power device. As demonstrated in thermodynamics, a thermal circuit can be considered to be an electrical circuit where R_1 , R_2 represent the thermal resistance of the single elements (expressed in °C/W);

Fig. 51

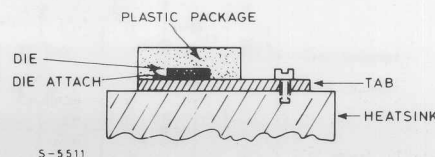
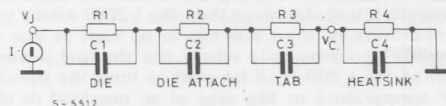


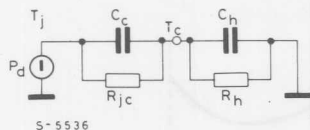
Fig. 52



C1, 2 the thermal capacitance (expressed in °C/W)
 I the dissipated power
 V the temperature difference with respect to the reference (ground).

This circuit can be simplified as follows:

Fig. 53



Where C_e is the thermal capacitance of the die plus that of the tab.

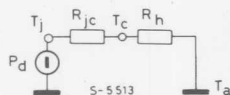
C_h is the thermal capacitance of the heatsink

R_{jc} is the junction case thermal resistance

R_h is the heatsink thermal resistance.

But since the aim of this section is not that of studying the transistors, the circuit can be further reduced.

Fig. 54



If we now consider the ground potential as ambient temperature, we have:

$$T_j = T_a + (R_{jc} + R_h) P_D \quad (1)$$

$$R_h = \frac{T_j - T_a - R_{jc} \cdot P_D}{P_D} \quad (1a)$$

$$T_c = T_a + R_h \cdot P_D \quad (2)$$

For example, consider an application of the L200 with the following characteristics:

$$\left. \begin{array}{l} V_{in \text{ typ}} = 20V \\ V_o = 14V \\ I_o \text{ typ} = 1A \\ T_a = 40^\circ C \end{array} \right\} \text{typical conditions}$$

$$\left. \begin{array}{l} V_{in \text{ max}} = 22V \\ V_o = 14V \\ I_o \text{ max} = 1.2A \\ T_a = 60^\circ C \end{array} \right\} \text{overload conditions}$$

$$P_{D \text{ typ}} = (V_{in} - V_o) \cdot I_o = (20-14) \cdot 1 = 6W$$

$$P_{D \text{ max}} = (22-14) \cdot 1.2 = 9.6W$$

Imposing $T_j = 90^\circ C$ of (1a) we get (from L200

characteristics we get $R_{j-c} = 3^\circ C/W$)

$$R_h = \frac{90 - 40 - 3 \cdot 6}{6} = 5.3^\circ C/W$$

Using the value thus obtained in (1), we get that the junction temperature during the overload goes to the following value:

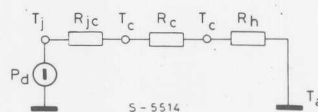
$$T_j = 60 + (3 + 5.3) \cdot 9.6 = 140^\circ C$$

If the overload occurs only rarely and for short periods, dimensioning can be considered to be correct.

Obviously during the shortcircuit, the dissipated power reaches much higher values (about 40W for the case considered) but in this case the thermal protection intervenes to maintain the temperature below the maximum values allowed.

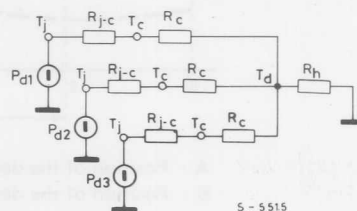
Note 1: If insulating materials are used between device and dissipator, the thermal contact resistance must be taken into account (0.5 to $1^\circ C/W$, depending on the type of insulant used) and the circuit in fig. 55 becomes:

Fig. 55



Note 2: In applications where one or more external transistors are used together with the L200, the dissipated power must be calculated for each component. The various junction temperatures can be calculated by solving the following circuit:

Fig. 56



This applies if the various dissipating elements are fairly near to one another with respect to the dissipator dimensions, otherwise the dissipator can no longer be considered as a concentrated constant and the calculation becomes difficult.

This concept is better explained by the graph in fig. 57 which shows the case (and therefore junction) temperature variation as a function of the distance between two dissipating elements with the same type of dissipator and the same dissipated power. The graph in fig. 57 refers to the specific case of two elements dissipating the same power, fixed on a rectangular aluminium plate with a ratio

of 3 between the two sides. The temperature jump will depend on the dissipated power and one the device geometry but we want to show that there exists an optimal position between the two devices:

$$d = \frac{1}{2} \cdot \text{side of the plate}$$

Fig. 58 shows the trend of the temperature as a function of the distance between two dissipating elements whose dissipated power is fairly different (ratio 1 to 4).

Fig. 57

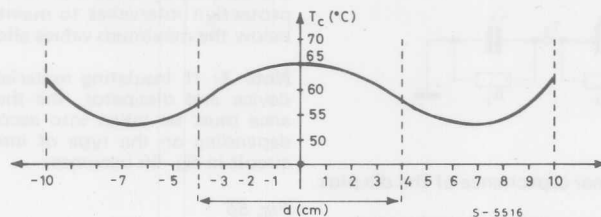
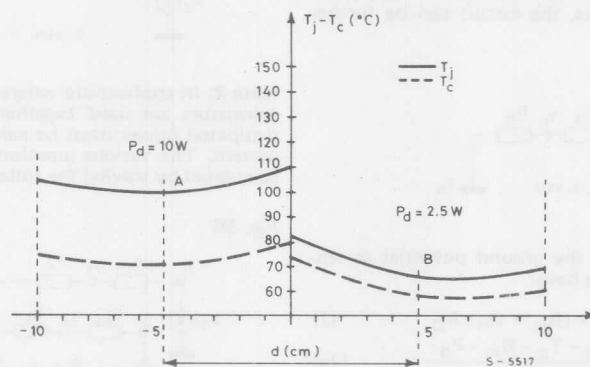


Fig. 58



A : Position of the device with high power dissipation (10W)
B : Position of the device with low power dissipation (2.5W)

This graph may be useful in applications with the L200 + external transistor (in which the transistor generally dissipates more than the L200) where the temperature of the L200 has to be kept as low as possible and especially where the thermal protection of the L200 is to be used to limit the transistor temperature in the case of an overload or abnormal increase in the ambient temperature. In other words the distance between the two elements can be selected so that the power transistor reaches the $T_{j \max}$ (200°C for a TO-3 transistor) when the L200 reaches the thermal protection intervention temperature.

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